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Basic Characteristics of the Geological History of Tuva
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The geological history of Tuva is characterized by the following stages:

1. The first stage is the Paleozoic. This stage is characterized by the presence of marine sediments, which were deposited in the Tethys Sea. The marine environment was favorable for the development of various types of marine life, including corals, trilobites, and brachiopods.
2. The second stage is the Mesozoic. This stage is characterized by the presence of terrestrial sediments, such as sandstones and shales, which were deposited in a continental environment. The terrestrial environment was favorable for the development of various types of land plants and animals.
3. The third stage is the Cenozoic. This stage is characterized by the presence of both marine and terrestrial sediments, which were deposited in a continental environment. The continental environment was favorable for the development of various types of land plants and animals.
4. The fourth stage is the Quaternary. This stage is characterized by the presence of glacial sediments, which were deposited during the last ice age. The glacial environment was favorable for the development of various types of land plants and animals.

The geological history of Tuva is characterized by the presence of various types of geological structures, such as folds, faults, and metamorphic rocks. These structures were formed as a result of tectonic processes, such as mountain building and plate movement. The geological history of Tuva is also characterized by the presence of various types of mineral deposits, such as coal, oil, and gas. These deposits were formed as a result of biological processes, such as the decomposition of organic matter.

- 1 -

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The upper part of the following geological section is the same as described above, according to the author's observations. The beginning of the section is characterized by a large number of thin, horizontal layers of light-colored, slightly siliceous dolomites, deposited in the basin. They are followed by gray dolomites, containing dolomitic limestone lenses, dipping at 30° to the west. In the upper part of the section, the dolomites are replaced by dolomitic limestone, which contains numerous thin, horizontal layers of dolomites. The dolomites are followed by dolomitic limestone, which contains numerous thin, horizontal layers of dolomites.

The following section is based on the observations of the author, which were made during the period 1950-1951, and on the results of the geological work of the Institute of Geological Sciences of the USSR and the Institute of Geology and Mineralogy of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. The presence of the following sections of the upper Silurian in Tzava is established by the author. The upper Silurian consists of two main groups of rocks: dolomites and dolomitic limestone. The dolomites are characterized by a large quantity of dolomite, which is often present in the form of dolomitic limestone lenses. The dolomites are followed by dolomitic limestone, which contains numerous thin, horizontal layers of dolomites. The dolomites are followed by dolomitic limestone, which contains numerous thin, horizontal layers of dolomites.

The upper Silurian (see figure 1), after the lower Silurian series of dolomites and dolomitic limestone, is characterized by a small thickness, particularly in the middle and upper parts, and is followed by dolomitic limestone. This is followed by the transition to the upper Silurian series, which is characterized by a large quantity of dolomites and dolomitic limestone, which are often present in the form of dolomitic limestone lenses. The dolomites are followed by dolomitic limestone, which contains numerous thin, horizontal layers of dolomites.

The upper Silurian is characterized by the wide transgression of a small sea moving from the southwest, from the region of Lake Issyk-Kul, and for a short time encroaching upon the basins of the Big and the Small Konye. It is of interest that in the southeast the boundary of upper Silurian basin has repeated the boundary of the Cambrian (see figure 2). The upper-Silurian basin situated in islands, among

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The majority of the northern part of the Tuva basin is occupied by the Tuva River valley; the southern part of the basin is occupied by the Terek River valley. The Tuva River valley is the largest and deepest valley in the basin. It is about 1,000 km long and has a width of 10-15 km. The Tuva River valley is characterized by a large number of tributaries, which are all derived from the Terek River system. The Tuva River valley is characterized by a large number of tributaries, which are all derived from the Terek River system.

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According to the degree of dislocation, or the general type of folding, and to the origin, the main structures of the mountain regions can be subdivided into three "structural floors": the first floor consists of the quaternary deposits; the second includes the main resulting part of the Paleozoic deposits; and the third, the deposits of the Mesozoic era. The folding structures of the first floor are usually small-scale, limited to small, isolated groups of folds. The presence of large (10^3 - 10^4 m), continuous, parallel mountain ridges, the folds of the second floor, are predominantly large, widely spaced, and irregular. The third floor, which is the most interesting from the point of view of the geological history of the region, is characterized by the relatively well-defined, clearly-folded structures. In the solid mass of folded rocks the folds form groups between 6 to 10°; they exceed 30° on the ridge, but not of 45°. They are often oriented N-S; they exceed 30° on the ridge, but not of 45°. In some types the deposited structures follow one another, without being broken off, and this is particularly true here. The dislocations are clearly related to running mountain ridges.

The third "structural floor" is distinguished by a wide display of folding. Isometric dislocations lie on the broad non-Cambrian layers, and it is the sinuous isoclinal, form sloping ridges of large masses, which pass smoothly into horizontal layers; the points of intensive dislocations are coordinated to zones of disjunctive dislocations and usually are strictly parallel. The dislocations of tertiary deposits are closely related to thick fractures that separate the horst (fault ridge) of the Tannu-Ola Mountain Chain from the south.

The genesis of Cambrian folded deposits is clear. The latter are typical folded structures of geosynclinal regions. The origin of folds of the second and the third "structural floors" similar to each other is of an intermediate type between dislocations of platform-like and geosynclinal regions. These folds

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originate in consequence of differential vertical shifts of individual rocks of the cracked solid base. A distinguishing peculiarity of the folds considered is the predominance of undisturbed shapes of the brachy-fold type and a sharp difference in size depending on the depth of the deposits: in the central part of basins where the thickness is greater, the folds are bigger and slanting and, on the margins they are smaller and steeper. Independently of thickness of the deposits and location, the presence of relatively narrow linear zones of intensive dislocations with steep folds and overthrust is typical. The linearity of such dislocations and their rapid shift across their course by slanting layers leave no doubt as to their relations with zones of large-scale fractures. Essentially the whole post-Cambrian history of the western part of Tuva consists in the history of differential motion along the fractures of individual rocks, where the boundaries of separate big rocks and the amplitude of their sinking have determined the boundaries of accumulation basins, the depth of deposits, the intensity and direction of folding.

A good example of prolonged successive development of fractures and related directions of folded structures may be found in the regions of the Western Tannu-Ola Mountain Chain and in the territory north of Lake Ubsa-Nur (the Chadan-Khandaysk rock). In contrast to the northwestern directions and trends of the fold of the central parts of Cambrian geosynclines within the limits of the Western Tannu-Ola Mountain Chain, the latitudinal and west northwest directions are clearly marked. These directions, observed in all Paleozoic strata, are due to the slowly developing upheaval, started as early as at the end of Cambrian. A big island existed here during the upper Silurian; a peninsula existed during the Devonian; and an upheaval which closed the accumulation basin from the south occurred in the

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Carboniferous. A confirmation of the further development of latitudinal Cambrian fractures may be found in the contour of boundaries of the lower Devonian transgression, brought about by the sinking of the "Chadan-Khandayek" rock. The sinking type of rocks of this region is confirmed by the relatively undisturbed layers of great thickness (down to 9 km) of Devonian-Carboniferous and by sharp reduction in thickness right beyond the boundaries of the territory of the above-mentioned rock, northwards and westwards (up to 1 km).

Since the end of the Paleozoic and the beginning of the Mezozoic the degree of difference in existing processes of the separated two zones of Tuva had been leveling off; and at the end of the Mezozoic the differently moving rocks came into a state of equilibrium and to a long relative rest. The whole country has been leveled by erosive processes and is approaching a "peneplain". During the Cenozoic era a stormy revival of rock movements occurred, shaking the whole territory of Tuva by the same amount. The youthfulness of these movements is confirmed, besides by numerous geomorphological facts and frequent earthquakes, by the intensity of the dislocation of Pliocene deposits. During this period old fractures were opened and new ones were started; but in both cases mostly latitudinal and, only in the extreme west, meridional fractures occurred.

Hence Tuva represents an extremely complicated region, and its tectonic structure may be named "folded-rock". Its contemporary structure is a result of a complex geological development, characterized by a long period of gradually increasing rate of crushing of big rocks into smaller ones with simultaneous differential movements relative to each other. The fact that we meet everywhere, in the contemporary Tuva highland, with the phenomena of tightly interwoven forms bearing the seal of deep antiquity together with recent features allows us to conclude that the topographical

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relief of this country is exceptionally recent and has appeared in the place of the ancient "peneplain" as a result of recent movements of rocks.

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- 7 -

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(Key to Figures 6, 7, 8, 9.)

a- regions of probable dry land; b- Cambrian geosynclinal zone; c- Cambrian platform deposits; d- region of transgression in the upper Silurian; e- region of transgression in the lower Devonian; f- accumulation region of deposits D₂₊₃ and C; g- accumulation region of Permian marine deposits; h- accumulation region of Permian continental deposits; i- accumulation region of Jurassic fresh water deposits; k- regions of pre-Cambrian expansions; l- region of pre-Cambrian and lower Paleozoic expansion; m- region of mostly lower Paleozoic development; n- region of mostly middle and upper Paleozoic development; o- regions of mesozoic development of deposits; p- tectonic cavities, filled with tertiary and quaternary deposits; r- main directions of extensions of folding axes; s- fractures, observed and assumed.

UPHEAVALS. 1- East Sayan Mountain Range; 2- West Sayan Mountain Range; 3- Sangilen highland; 4- Bura Mountain Range; 5- West and East Tannu-Ola Mountain Ranges;

Depressions - regions of sinking; 6- Minusinsk; 7- Ulukhemsk; 8- Ubsanursk; 9- Terekholsk; 10- Arshansk; 11- Saldamsk; 12- Bus-Belimsk; 13- Serlig; 14- Todzhin; 15- Turan; 16- continuation (?) of Ulukhemsk valley.

[Note: Figures 1-4 follow on next page.]

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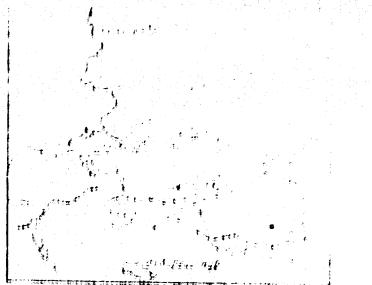


FIGURE 1



FIGURE 2

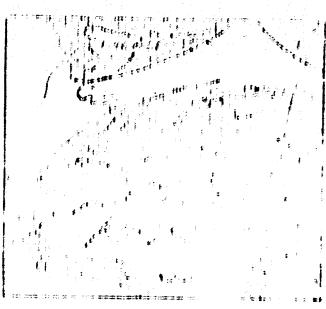


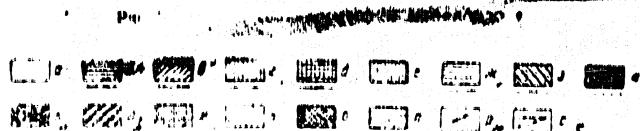
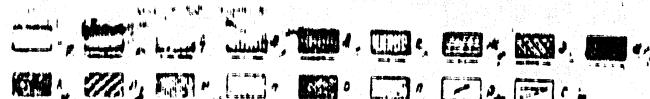
FIGURE 3

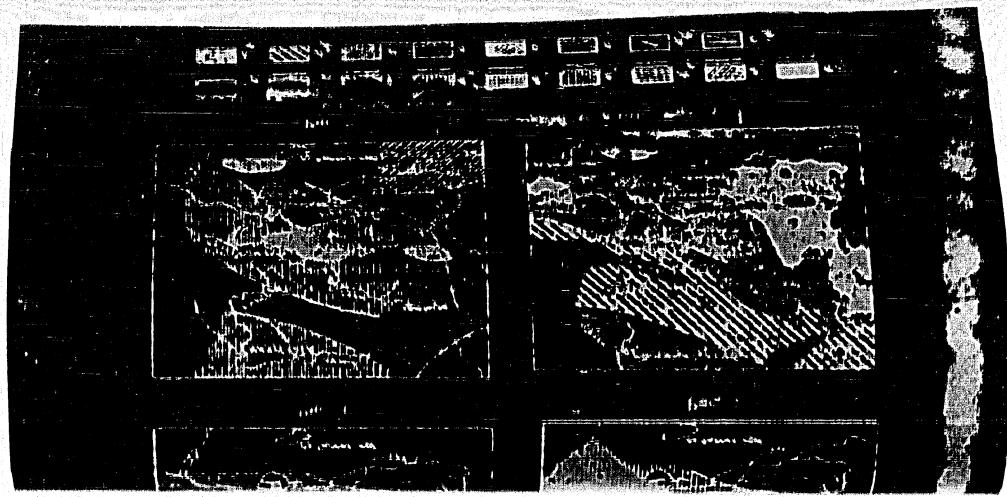


FIGURE 4

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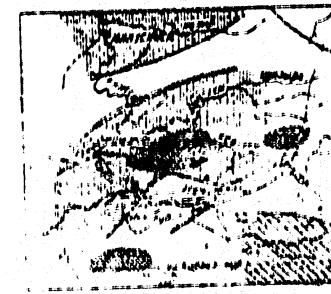




PAGE 1



PAGE 2



PAGE 3

